TRAINING COOKS

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

MARCH 15, 1941

OVERNMENT STANDARDS

CITRUS

MILK GLOSSARY

BOOKSHELF

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

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WHETHER YOU vacation in luxury style or in your own backyard this summer, here are some pointers on how to take the hot weather in your stride.

Exercise, yes, but don't make it strenuous when the sun is at its peak and the thermometer hitting the summer highs. Don't be a pushover for stiff muscles and a cramped spine by playing 3 sets of tennis or a hard game of volley ball the first time you go outdoors after a winter hibernation at an office desk, a work bench, or a kitchen stove.

This next is a year-round rule, but holds particularly for the summer months: Don't indulge in vigorous exercise immediately before you eat, or immediately afterwards. If you can choose your form of exercise, remember one of the healthiest summer sports is swimming, since it doesn't involve overheating of the body.

Try to sleep regularly. You will suffer less from irritability and discomfort during the heat spells if you get plenty of rest.

There is nothing like a cool shower to keep the body invigorated and refreshed after a hot day at work. Government health experts recommend a shower in preference to a bath because a shower does not have the sedative and weakening effect of the long tub bath.

Foods you eat and liquids you drink will have a lot to do with your comfort in hot months. This does not mean a complete changeover in your diet habits, but you should eat less of the high caloried foods, such as fried foods, pastries, rich gravies, heavy soups, starches, and fats.

Take advantage of the seasonal bargains in fresh fruits and vegetables. Eat plenty of them for the valuable additions they bring in vitamins and minerals. Lean meat, fish and poultry, along with milk, eggs, and cheese are good warm weather proteins.

DRINK AT LEAST 6 TO 8 GLASSES OF WATER a day to make up for the loss of water through the sweat glands. Be sure also to replace the salt lost from the body through perspiration. If you perspire excessively when you work, drink slightly salted water or eat salty foods occasionally as a guard against loss of too much salt from the body. And if you are one of those who fall on the point of heat prostration every time the temperature and humidity go up, it might be wise to check with your doctor about using salt tablets to ward off heat exhaustion.

Drink fruit juices in ample quantity, too, but don't let them displace the pint of milk a day for the adult or the quart a day needed by children.

Keep all perishable foods in the refrigerator until ready to be used. Be particularly leery of holding leftovers more than a day or 2 old, especially custards, creams, cooked and ground meats, and fish.

If you are picnicking, pack your food with ice to keep it fresh and cool. Make salads and sandwiches shortly before you leave, and keep vegetables crisp in waxed paper until you actually sit down to eat. Be wary of uncertified water supplies in the country; look for a report by your State Health Department on safe water.

BE COMFORT-WISE AS WELL AS STYLE-WISE in your summer wardrobe. A few tips: Wear light, loose-fitting clothing to allow free circulation of air. Cotton and linen head the list for good summer fabrics. Dark clothes absorb heat, increase your discomfort; white fabrics or other light shades reflect the sun's rays and are cooler.

Children's sunsuits should be free of belts, tight bands or elastics, uncomfortable slipping shoulder straps and halter ties. They should be made of soft and pliable cottons, and designed to give the child all the benefit he can get from the sun's rays.

Buy summer house dresses of gingham, percale, chambray, seersucker, and medium weight broadcloth. None of these have to be starched, and they're easy to iron. They should be simply and coolly cut, without frills and trim to make them uncomfortable.

Men's summer clothing should be light and easy fitting. Seersucker, hopsacking, linen, linen-like cottons, gabardine and light-weight corduroys are all favorites.

Don't overdo your beach or backyard sun-worshipping. Fifteen minutes of direct exposure is a good start. Then, gradually increase the time. Lotions, creams, and oils can't guarantee you against serious burns, but a lubricated skin burns less readily than one that is not.

FRECKLES CAN'T BE REMOVED WITH creams. Read the labels on so-called freckle creams to see if they contain mercury compounds. The Food and Drug Administration requires a warning on the label of such products to caution (1) not to use the product further if it causes skin irritation; (2) not to apply it to irritated, cut, bruised, sunburned, or sore skin, or after shaving or using a depilatory; (3) not to use it for prolonged periods if you want to avoid skin discoloration; and (4) not to apply the cream to a large area of the body. The label must also warn against use of the cream by children under 12.

Don't pluck every pretty plant you see; some of them may be poisonous. For a consumer index to dangerous plants, see "Pointers on Poisonous Plants" in the July 1940 issue of CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

If you like to look at the world through tinted glasses, be sure you don't wear those of blown glass. That kind may have bubbles, scratches, and other defects that will hurt your eyes. Buy sun glasses labeled as having ground and polished lens. The color of the lens makes no difference so far as strain on your eyesight is concerned.

AND, FINALLY, TICKS. IF YOU LIVE OR vacation in a wooded or grassy area overgrown with shrubs or bushes, you should take certain precautions against ticks. Clear away all undergrowth, and cut the grass closely. Children should be given a twice-a-day examination and any ticks found on them removed with tweezers. Don't crush the tick, but destroy it by burning. Be sure to clean the tweezers in alcohol afterwards, and put iodine on the wound. If you are a dog owner, look over your pet carefully and remove any attached ticks, using the same precautions when your destroy them. If anyone in your family is bitten by a tick and becomes ill or develops a fever in 4 to 12 days, he should be put under the care of a doctor. You can also be inoculated against Rocky Mountain Fever, which is transmitted by ticks.

How Smart Are You?

SERGEANT MORIARITY took his pipe from his mouth.

"You know what my daughter says when she serves me dinner?"

The Lieutenant shook his head, and everybody else said, no.

"Make way, mama! Here's morale for Moriarity."

That was the Sergeant's influence. "Any mess sergeant can tell you," he said, "food isn't just food. Food's morale."

Ten years seniority on the Lieutenant permitted the Sergeant to talk with the authority of Lee and Grant, Sherman and Jackson, all in the same accents.

Napoleon said, according to the Sergeant, morale is to manpower as 3 is to one. "Do you know what that means?"

The sergeant didn't stop for answers. "That means a well-fed man is 3 times as good as a man who just gets filler at mealtimes."

The Sergeant's an instructor in the Cooks and Bakers School at Fort George G. Meade, Maryland, where the Army takes its men in hand and teaches them their way around the army kitchen.

"They ought to make every woman read the 'Army Cook' before they issue her a marriage license," the Sergeant thinks. He reaches over his desk and picks up the 196-page "Army Cook."

"Here," he says, reading: "Good cooking promotes health, contentment, and pride of organization in each soldier. Poorly cooked meals will do more to make soldiers discontented than any other factor."

"Just change a couple of words around and you have the whole story. Like this: 'Good cooking promotes health, contentment, and pride of family in people. Poorly cooked meals will do more to make people discontented than any other factor.' "

The Lieutenant thought maybe the Sergeant was having things too much his own way. He suggests the Sergeant doesn't really think the boys who win certificates as first and second cooks at the Cooks and Bakers School really know as much as an everyday housewife.

"They're all right for men," the Lieutenant says, "but a woman, now, why she starts life knowing more about running a kitchen than a man could ever learn."

"Is that right?" the Sergeant is quick to take up the challenge.

"How many women you know can answer the questions my boys must answer to pass their final examinations? How many?"

The Sergeant was daring the Lieutenant to state a number.

"Well, what are the questions?"

The Sergeant fishes in a desk drawer until

Will you be able to keep up with the boys who are learning all about preparing foods and well-balanced meals, when they come home from the Army?

he finds some mimeographed examination sheets. "Just try these on any woman you know, and see how she makes out."

"Ready?" Everybody was ready.

And here are some of the examination questions which the boys in one Army Camp must answer before they can be certified as full-fledged cooks and bakers:

Define parboiling.

What are the best uses for the prime ribs of a beef carcass?

How long should the following be cooked—boiled cabbage, fresh lima beans, corn on the cob, dried apricots, issue beans (those are navy beans)?

How much time is required to cook the following—roast beef, pan rolls, roast pork, plain cake?

Give names of 4 foods in which each of the following is found—Ascorbic Acid (that's Vitamin C); protein; carbohydrates, iron?

What has the cooking of *food* to do with its nutritive value?

Tell how to care for bake pans and iron kitchen utensils.

Give 3 rules to be observed in making salads.

What does baste mean?

What is the difference between lard and lard compound?

What uses can be made of the juice from canned fruits?

Define cooking. What is baking?

What is a balanced diet?

Explain these terms—roasting, parboiling, simmering.

Why are soups and gravies important in mess (women can say "at the dinner table" for "mess")?

Name 8 ways of preparing potatoes.

Name 12 methods of cooking.

Give 6 ways to use leftover bread.

Give 4 important rules in making coffee.

How should tea be made?

What is the essential step in the preparation of dried fruits and vegetables?

At what temperature does lard usually smoke?

What precautions should be taken when cooking in deep fat?

Name the cuts from the fore and hind quarters of beef and tell what uses they are best fitted for.

What causes the crust to form on a loaf of bread?

What causes rancidity in bread?

The Sergeant looked up from his examination questions. "Could any of your wives answer those questions?"

1

1 For every 50 men in the United States Army, there's one man in the mess. And since cooks, even born cooks, need training, there are some 60 Army cooks' and bakers' schools scattered through the United States and its possessions.

2 Graduates of 2-month training periods, in classrooms and kitchens, on food values and food preparation, cooking, and serving emerge as First or Second Cooks. First Cooks study an extra month to qualify as Mess Sergeants.

3 "Mess personnel," the Army Cook says, "should see that all food received in the mess is clean, sanitary, wholesome, in full weight and measure, and of the grade required by Government specifications. The Army Cook is their textbook."

2

3

Maybe, maybe not. But since the Sergeant had such strong views on food and its preparation, maybe he had a message for the women of America.

Yes, indeed, he did, and he would read it right out of the Army Cook.

First, "there is no limit to what can be done to improve the diet by thought and care in seasoning, attractive serving, and inventing new combinations and mixtures of foods."

Second, "a good cook takes pride in serving appetizing meals, in keeping himself and the kitchen clean and sanitary, and in preventing waste."

The Lieutenant wondered whether that wasn't an insult to a lot of competent home managers.

No, not that part about preventing the waste, the Sergeant insisted.

But the Sergeant still wasn't through.

Third, "good cooking makes economical living and promotes health and happiness."

Fourth, and with this the Sergeant was really getting something off his chest, "a menu which is not balanced will endanger health. The best means of guarding against this is to follow the general rule of serving fresh leafy vegetables, fresh fruits, and milk daily."

That was all right so far as it went, some one interposed. And that's as far as Army cooks have to go. But what advice did the Sergeant have for the homemakers who must know not only how to prepare, cook, and conserve food, but how to buy it, too?

Housewives have a hard time there, the Sergeant conceded. "Now in this man's army," he explained, "we buy by grade and specification. The people who work in the mess are required to see that all food is clean, wholesome, and full weight and measure, and of the grade required by Government specifications."

Women could check the weight and measure all right, the Sergeant said, but grades and specifications, well he just didn't see how women knew what quality of food they were buying without them.

There was something, then, the Sergeant hadn't heard about, Government grades for meat, and eggs, and butter, and cheese, and A-B-C standards for canned fruits and vegetables.

The Lieutenant now had a chance to ride the Sergeant. "Lots of women know all about grades and they insist on them when they go buying. See Sergeant, you're not so far in advance, after all."

The Sergeant was silenced.

4 **"Milk," says the Army Baker, ". . . when incorporated into bread dough . . . materially increases the nutritive value thereof." Dry skim milk, too, is another food whose qualities are appreciated in the Army, as they should be outside.**

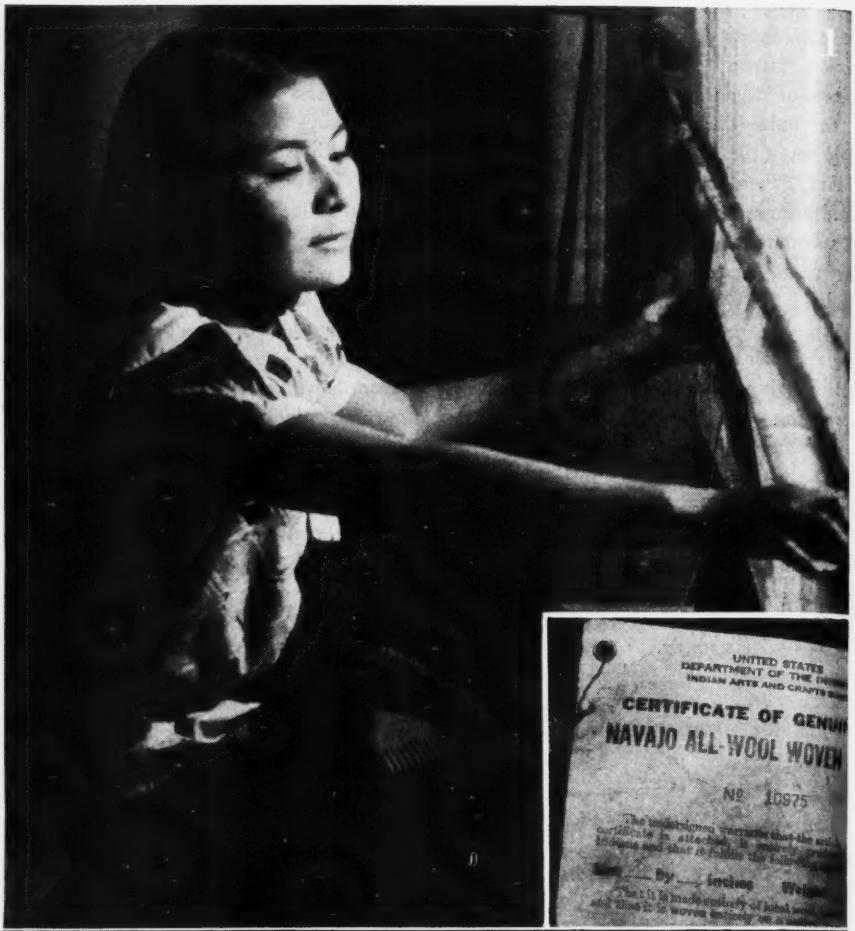
5 **"Competent cooks," says the Army Cook, "can make 'savory dishes' inexpensively, turn cheap foodstuffs into 'lordly viands,' and transform left-overs into 'marvelous dishes.'" The Army puts its emphasis on economical management as well as on culinary coup d'etats.**

6 **Army cooks get a trial by a jury of their peers every day. Playing housewife for the Army takes training and skill in management as well as in cooking, so the Army has a school in advanced household management in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.**

5

6

4



Standards for Consumers

BACK IN 1800, somebody in the Navy's purchasing office worried greatly that too much of the taxpayer's dollar was going for sizing and not enough for canvas when the Navy bought cloth for its sails. So he set up a standard to guard against the deception.

"The warp and filling," the standard said, "are to be wholly of good hatchelled flax and no part thereof of tow, and that there is no sizing to be used in the manufacture of cloth. But if it should be found indispensable that some kind of sizing should be used, then to guard the public from the evil of paying for what would be of no use, the Navy may have the sizing washed out of one bolt, weighing the bolt before and after this operation, and the weight lost by this process shall be deducted from each bolt delivered to ascertain the true weight to be paid for by the public. It is also agreed . . . that the warp and filling are to be as near the same size as practicable."

That was before the days of informative labeling and Government laboratories to check the goods purchased with the taxpayers' dollars. Since then, standards and buying by specification have come a long way.

THE RECORD OF STANDARDIZATION WORK done by Government, industry, and organized consumers is comprehensively told in a 433-page report prepared under the general supervision of the Consumers' Counsel Division and issued by the Temporary National Economic Committee. The title of this book is "Consumer Standards." Copies may be purchased for $1.00 from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

Here, for the first time, you can read the story of standards work being done in scattered laboratories in Washington and elsewhere, what has been accomplished, and what is promised for the future.

Forty-six different Federal Government offices today are concerned with the establishment or use of standards—whether they be for baby incubators or mining techniques.

Some set up specifications for the things they buy themselves—typewriters and airplanes and pencils and building materials and waste baskets.

Some are charged with protecting the consumer against misrepresentations about specific consumer goods. Some set up standards of safety as well as of quality of products.

Some agencies help to teach consumers how to be smarter buyers. Some do research in their own laboratories to determine the use values of goods which must underlie any quality standards.

YOU CAN'T PUT YOUR FINGER ON ONE Federal agency and say, "The Government does its standards work here," the way you might say the FBI is where you find the G-Men.

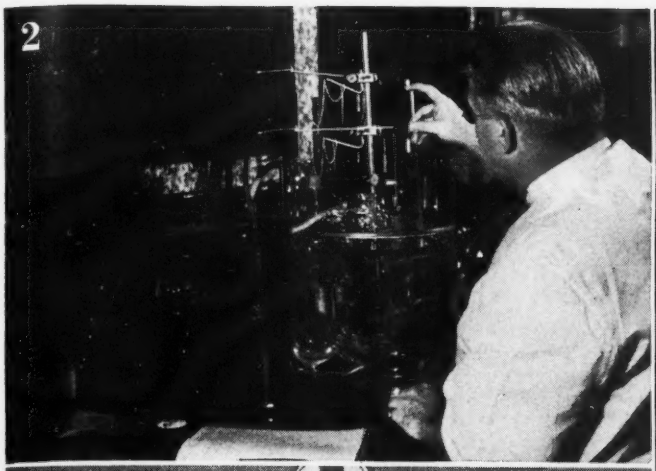
In the Department of Agriculture alone, 18 different agencies list on their official work sheets something on standards. The work they do ranges all the way from developing a standard method of mothproofing to passing on specifications for construction and operation of electrical generators.

Some of these agencies establish standards for use by buyers outside of Government. Apples, potatoes, and certain other fruits and vegetables are sold in wholesale markets on the basis of standards developed by the Agricultural Marketing Service; honey standards are developed by the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine.

Several Department bureaus work out standards to use themselves in carrying out their official assignments. The Soil Conservation Service uses heavy trucks, graders, tractors and other machinery in its work. It developed its own standards for these.

When loans go out to farm consumers, for equipment and supplies, the Department

Here's a book that pulls together the record of beginnings which Government, industry, and consumers have made in developing a language for buyers and sellers



Are on the March

1 Congressional law givers have seen to it that the centuries-old handicraft skills of the American Indian are not usurped by impostors. The Indian Arts and Crafts Board of the Department of Interior tags every Indian-made article as meeting standards of authenticity.

2 It takes this kind of complicated test to determine what some drug standards should be. Among the jobs of Food and Drug Administration officials is that of defining standards of purity and safety for many common and uncommon drugs, and regularly testing drugs that sell across State lines to see if they meet the standards.

3 Country water is posted as safe in many States after being tested for standards of purity. Domestic water supplies likewise are standardized through local and State legislation. Look up your local health regulations to see how the water you drink is kept safe.

4 Most everything the Government buys, even rags, is advertised and bid for on the basis of specifications. This is to guarantee that the taxpayer's dollar buys 100 cents' worth. When the taxpayer makes purchases of his own, he usually has no such assurance of quality.

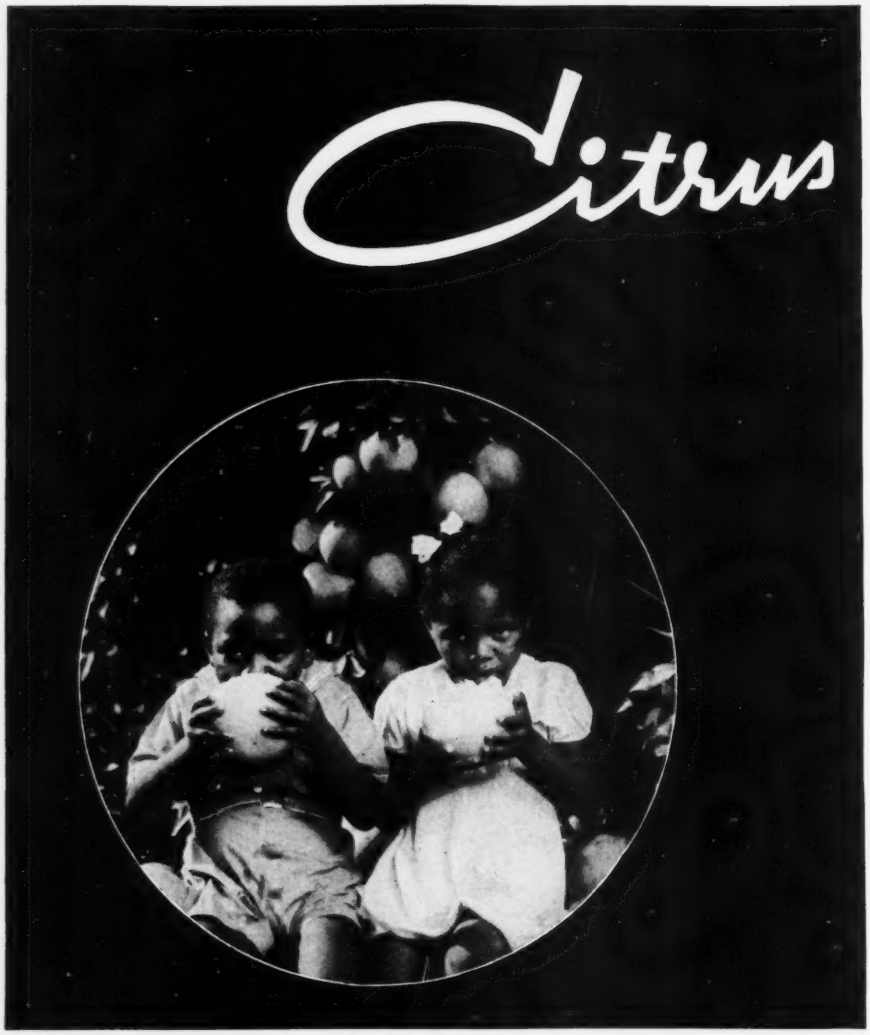
agency making the loan wants to be sure its money is not invested in a tin-plated tractor or broken-down dairy equipment. So the Farm Security Administration and the Rural Electrification Administration — both of which make loans to farm consumers—have either established or adopted existing standards for things like electric cables, plows, low-cost farm homes, and transformers whose price tags may run into the thousands.

Research of many agencies is later used as the basis for specifications. For example, there is the research of the Bureau of Home Economics on textiles and household equipment; and in the Forest Service on lumber and construction methods. Facts discovered in this research provide a basis for defining products and grades.

Outside laboratories very often use test methods developed within Government for setting up a standard. The Bureau of Dairy Industry, for one, has evolved tests to be used in establishing standards of sanitation to govern the control of milk distribution by cities.

Many county, local, and State governments do their own standards work, or use standards and specifications already tested by industry and the Federal Government. Often there is confusion and contradiction between standards of different government agencies. In other instances these agencies have agreed on a "standard" standard.

(*Concluded on page ten*)



PART V

HOW DOES a man know it's 1941?

By looking at the calendar, by adding his age to the year of his birth, by remembering that last year was 1940?

Maybe. But suppose a man should stop short on the street thinking it isn't 1941, it's really 1921, and I'm just dreaming that it's 1941. Boy, he would say to himself, what a dream! Then he would look around him relieved, but that would last for just one second. In a flash he would see that it couldn't be 1921.

There would be too many 1941 things on display. Tricky traffic lights, radios in cars, neon lights, parking lots, picture magazines on the newsstands. List them yourself. Take a pencil and write down everything you see or do or know about that is distinctly 1941 and positively not 1921.

Finally, you will come to canned citrus. In the 1939–40 citrus season, 16.3 million of the 35 million or so boxes of grapefruit harvested during the year went into cans. About half the grapefruit harvested was canned.

That didn't happen all at once in 1939–40, it's been happening since 1921 when the first carload of canned grapefruit rolled north. But now it has happened.

The men in the citrus industry regard what's happened as pretty important.

Right off they wonder what effect canned citrus is going to have on the demand for fresh citrus.

Naturally an industry that's been geared to selling its fruit fresh is likely to be uneasy of a development that might change its underpinnings.

But when they aren't considering the possible disadvantages of the rising flood of canned citrus, they note some other consequences. It makes available to consumers a larger total of citrus than could otherwise get to market.

Question occurs here: What prevents citrus fruit from getting to market?

At least 3 things: It frequently doesn't pay to ship the lower grades of fruit to market. The prices they bring won't cover the cost of shipping. At all times there are usually bottom grades of fruit that won't pay their way to town. When consumers lose their jobs and can't afford citrus fruit, citrus fruit prices drop and farmers discover that even the better grades of citrus fruit can't pay their passage consumerward.

Then there's always fruit that's too ripe or that has something else slightly wrong with it so that it won't stand up the 2 or 3 weeks it takes to get it to a consumer.

Before citrus canning appeared, large quantities of good fruit dropped to the ground during the growing period and rotted. Now much of this fruit is picked before it drops and put into cans. Starting first as a salvage operation, canning has become a most important outlet for the fruit and source of supply for consumers.

MARKET CONTROL, A DEVICE DESIGNED TO insure higher returns for producers and continuous supplies for consumers, right now prevents all Florida oranges and grapefruit that fall below the No. 2 grade from being shipped outside the State. (Sometimes No. 2 russets are also barred.) A limitation on the amount of fruit shipped to market from California keeps some fruit there off the national markets.

When wheat is not eaten in one year, it can be held over for the next year. It used to be in the citrus industry that if citrus

Winding now to a close, this tale of Vitamin-C-rich fruits which started with Columbus ends in the millions of cans into which citrus products now pour each year*

**Earlier installments of this series appeared in these issues of* CONSUMERS' GUIDE: *January 15, February 1, February 15, and March 1, 1941.*

wasn't sold right after it was picked (it will keep 6 to 8 months on the tree), it was never sold. Now that's changed. Processing citrus fruit permits it to be stored after it is picked and sold when there's a demand for it.

Canned citrus means for one thing that consumers get a chance to eat vast quantities of citrus fruit that might otherwise be wasted. That's important; that means increased supplies of citrus for consumers. It also means that fruit, now being produced in larger quantities than can be sold fresh, that might have been a total loss to growers, pays its own way.

CANNED GRAPEFRUIT SEGMENTS YOU know about. Canned grapefruit juice is no stranger to you. You've seen the so-called dairy orange juice. Then there's canned lemon and orange juice, frozen orange juice, citrus juice concentrates first put up for the beverage industries but now sold in cans for consumers, too. Citrus vinegars are available for gourmets; citrus wines, cordials, and brandies are appearing on the market. Marmalades have been a treat for years, but now comes citrus jelly. Orange butter, another new product, is being groomed as a bread spread for children; candied citrus peel continues to be a citrus staple.

Pectin, the substance in fruits that makes them jell, is a booming citrus product. Confectioners use several hundred thousand pounds of it a year to make the candies called jelly pieces; drug and cosmetic manufacturers use it in lotions and emulsions to give them smoothness. Pectin products are also used in steel manufacture, and in the creaming of rubber latex. A more dramatic use of pectin occurs in operating rooms or dentists' chairs. Dentists saturate a plug of cotton with pectin to stop hemorrhages. Similarly, it is used to staunch the flow of blood in minor cuts, or abrasions, or nosebleeds. Dangerous operations are made less so by injections of pectin into the veins or arteries of persons who are about to undergo an operation. The injections speed up the rate with which blood coagulates and thus reduce the hazard of hemorrhage.

Citrin, a substance that is suspected of being a vitamin, is made from substances in orange peel. It already has some uses in clinics, and will probably be discovered to have other uses when more is found out about it.

Orange oils are used in perfumes, candies, and bakery goods. Citric acid has been compounded into drugs since days when apothecaries advertised their labors with colored bottles full of waters. It is even more widely used today as a constitutent in beverages. Sodium citrate, which is made in the plants that make citric acid, is used to prevent lumping in evaporated milk.

The peel and the pulp, that is, what's left after everything else of value has been extracted from citrus, is ground to be used either as feed for animals or fertilizer for fields.

While facts about the little known uses of citrus are curious and fascinating, so long as Americans need 70 percent more citrus fruit and tomatoes in their diets than they are getting now, people are likely to want to know specifically what's being done about that problem.

CITRUS CANNING IS IMPORTANT BY THAT criterion. Canned peas, canned beans, canned milk are staples in the diets of families who frequently can't afford the fresh variety. Canned citrus is not that important yet. One study made recently in New York showed that the families that buy canned citrus are the families who can afford to buy and do buy fresh citrus, too. An earlier study made of citrus consumption by the Consumers' Counsel Division in 1936 revealed that in St. Louis and Baltimore, the most important reason families didn't use more canned citrus was that they couldn't afford more.

Just to show you where canned citrus got by last year, here are some statistics on the 1939–40 season.

Altogether some 96 million No. 2 cans of grapefruit segments were put up.

Grapefruit juice was squeezed into the equivalent of some 264 million No. 2 cans.

The equivalent of 86 million No. 2 cans were filled with orange juice; some 34 million No. 2 cans of combination orange and grapefruit juice were packed; about 2½ million No. 2 cans of lemon juice were packed; about 48 thousand cans of orange segments were put on the market; and about 2 million No. 2 cans of citrus salad were put up.

CITRUS WAS LATE GETTING INTO CANS, and for that matter the trick of canning orange segments hasn't been solved yet. Canned or put up in glass jars, citrus juice deteriorated before it could be got to consumers. Canning citrus segments was further complicated. Not only did the flavor deteriorate when it was put up in cans, but the texture of the fruit would break down into mush. Orange segments still can't be canned without the segments becoming tough and tasteless, but the hump is passed so far as canned juice and canned grapefruit segments are concerned.

These processes won't preserve citrus in-

ALL CITRUS looks pretty much alike from the outside of a tin can. The way to know the quality of what's in the can is to buy by Government grade. Citrus products are included among the canned foods that are being packed under the new system of continuous inspection by experts of the Agricultural Marketing Service. Such cans bear an official seal and a certified U. S. grade.

definitely even now; deterioration still sets in after a year. For this reason some canned citrus labels tell you the season in which the citrus was packed so consumers can be warned against over-age products.

The only accurate way to buy economically is, of course, to buy by Government grade. There are now Government grades for canned grapefruit, canned grapefruit juice, and canned orange juice. For a description of these grades you can look up the February 15, 1941, issue of the CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

Besides knowing the grade of the canned citrus you are buying, you should also know the season it was packed in. Then you would get better tasting citrus if you could persuade your grocer to keep the cans in the refrigerator instead of on the shelves. Once you get it home, it's also a good idea that you keep it in the ice box instead of in the pantry. Then just before you drink canned citrus juice, try restoring the air that was originally forced out of it. You do this by pouring the juice back and forth between 2 glasses or by stirring with an egg-beater.

It isn't very easy to set up a standard of comparison between canned citrus and fresh citrus but these jottings may be useful.

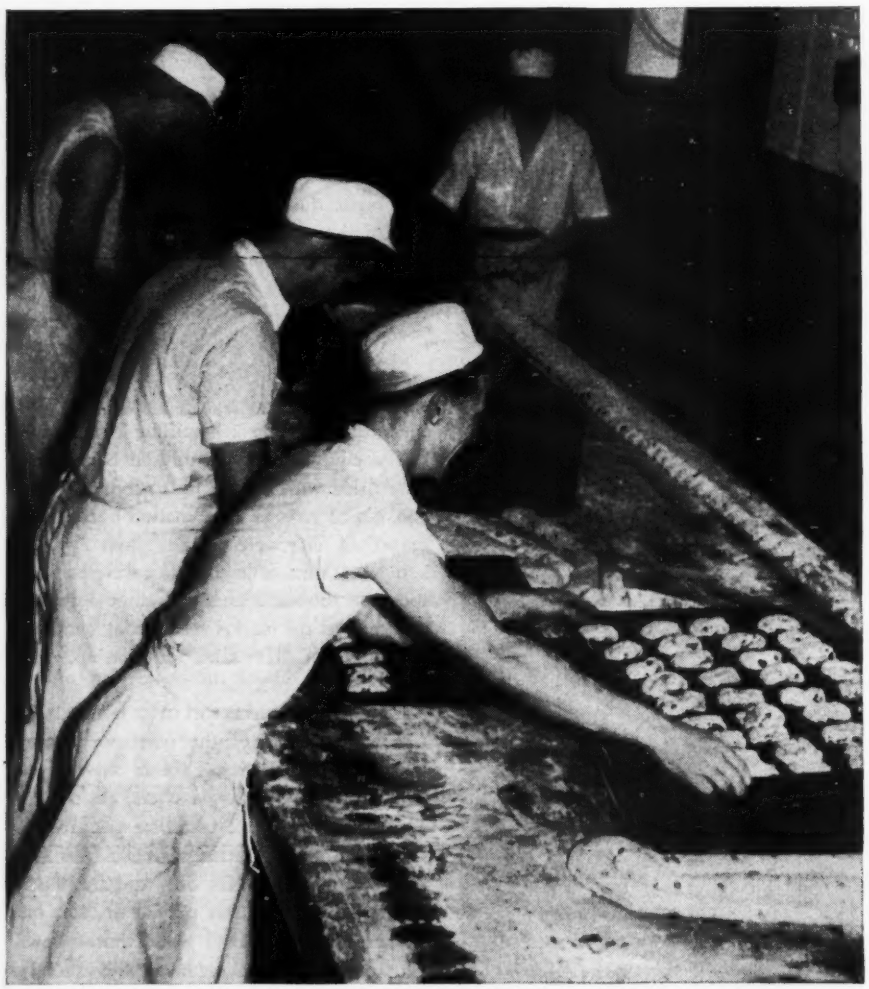
First, canned citrus has about 80 to 90 percent of the vitamin strength (ascorbic acid) of the fresh fruit.

A No. 2 can of grapefuit segments is the equivalent of 2 average sized grapefruit (No. 70).

Ten ounces of canned orange juice is the equivalent of 4 average sized oranges (No. 200).

Ten ounces of lemon juice is the equivalent of 9 average sized lemons (No. 360).

A No. 2 can of grapefruit juice contains as much juice as 3 average sized grapefruit (No. 70).



WHILE FRESH CITRUS continues to go directly to market, increasing quantities are detouring through citrus factories, where juice is canned, and oil and pectin are extracted. Citrus industry products find uses on consumers' tables, in pharmaceutical supplies, bakeries, candy factories, and in other food industries.

STANDARDS FOR CONSUMERS

(*Concluded from page seven*)

There are several classic examples of how a city purchasing commission was able to save by standardizing on certain purchases. New York City is cutting the number of its printed forms used for official business from 15,000 to 5,000 and expects to save $200,000 a year as a result. Milwaukee cut its soap costs 75 percent by buying by specification instead of by brand or trade name. Ohio put $2,000,000 back into its coffers by insisting on bona fide competitive bidding according to specifications last year.

Business has long maintained its own laboratories and trade associations to build up a structure of standards which it uses for its own buying and selling. Seldom do these standards carry through to consumers.

A few consumer groups have established their own laboratories and reporting agencies to help them make their dollars go further. For these, standards of quality and performance are set up by laboratory test, and various brands are then measured against this scientific yardstick.

This all sounds as if the standards job were done. Actually, it is only a beginning. Most buyers and sellers still talk languages that neither of them understands. The job that standards have to do is to provide a common language. The buyers who need such a language most are consumers.

How to get standards that carry through to consumers is the problem. There must be basic research on the use value of goods, what is expected of them, what materials and construction will give those results. Then there has to be agreement on the kind of standard consumers need most. Should it be a performance standard, a quality standard, a safety standard, a construction standard? Which of these is most important, which is attainable? Or should the ultimate consumer standard be based on a combination of these? The answer varies with different products.

After that there must be decision on a standard way to identify standards. Shall it be by Good, Better, Best? Or by A, B, C? What should labels say? Even when standards are agreed upon, consumers have to be helped in understanding and using them.

That's the future of standards. The present is told in this volume. Here you can learn what has been done so far. For students of standards—or for those consumers who have a hobby interest in the subject—"Consumer Standards" should be something of a landmark in the consumer movement.

Milk Glossary for Consumers

PART XI

Putting more meaning into the words consumers use when they work to get more milk to more consumers*

REQUIREMENTS. While the food values of milk can be got from other foods, they cannot be got so readily or economically as in milk. For this reason, nutritionists think it is desirable for people to get these amounts of milk every day: a growing child, ¾ to 1 quart; an expectant or nursing mother, 1 quart; other family members, 1 pint or more. Milk, of course, can be had in different forms: as fluid whole or skim milk, buttermilk, evaporated milk, dry milk, cheese. (See Equivalents.) Consult a pediatrician for appropriate milk to be given infants after weaning or to infants who are artificially fed.

Nutritionists of international reputation think we would do well if we doubled our present consumption of dairy products.

RESALE PRICE. The price at which a distributor sells milk, whether at wholesale to stores, restaurants, etc., and at retail to consumers.

Marketing agreements and market orders issued under the authority of the Federal Market Agreement Act do not fix the resale price of milk. Some State laws give to State Milk Boards the power to fix resale prices. Sometimes State regulations discriminate against certain types of resale business. For instance, in some areas, dealers are required to sell milk through stores at the same price as that charged for milk delivered to homes. In some areas, dealers are not permitted to sell milk in large containers.

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SANITATION. Dictionaries say, rather unrevealingly, that sanitation is the use of sanitary measures. When you track down "sanitary," you find that sanitary measures are those that have to do with the preservation or restoration of health.

Sanitary milk is healthful milk. Milk sanitation is the technique of providing healthful milk.

In the fairly short history of milk sanitation, regulations that were originally intended to protect the public health against harmful bacteria have sometimes evolved into possible or actual threats to public health by making safe milk unnecessarily expensive and so beyond the reach of people who need more of it.

Milk is not only an excellent food for humans; it is an excellent food for some kinds of disease-bearing bacteria. That's why the sanitary control of milk is absolutely essential. Among the diseases that can be transmitted by milk are tuberculosis, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, septic sore throat, and undulant fever. How tight and meticulous sanitary control must be in order to protect consumers from milk-borne diseases is something for scientists, tinged with a knowledge and interest in economics, to work out along with consumers and producers.

BUT WHY MUST I PAY THE SAME PRICE IF I CARRY MILK HOME OR IF THE MILKMAN DELIVERS IT?
THAT'S THE REGULATION IN THIS STATE, MADAM

Long before people knew that milk could spread diseases, and long before people knew how to prevent milk from spreading them, sanitary regulations were passed to clean up some unsavory practices in the selling of milk.

In the 1850's, the inhabitants of New York and Boston got some of their milk from cows quartered right in the city. These cows, according to reports of those days, were frequently fed on wastes from distilleries. Cows were kept in indoor stables, too often not cleaned out, where little sunlight could reach.

Science hadn't advanced far enough to explain precisely why these conditions were bad, but people instinctively knew that they were. In 1859, the State of Massachusetts passed a law forbidding the feeding of distillery wastes to cows. Other States and cities followed suit.

Investigations by the great French scientist, Louis Pasteur (1822–1895), showed the relation between bacteria and disease, and in 1886 a chemist named Soxhlet began to urge that all milk fed to infants should be pasteurized.

Seven years later, while the milk trade hooted in derision, pasteurized milk began to be distributed to poor children in New York. At the time, it should be noted some milk dealers were doing something very like pasteurization to their milk, not for health's sake, but to improve the keeping quality of their milk. By 1912, many of the scoffers had fallen in line and the present pattern for sanitary milk regulations had been written into the laws of many cities, counties, and States.

Serious outbreaks of milk-borne diseases are very rare these days, but the United States Public Health Service continues to re-

**Earlier installments of this series appeared in the August, October 1, October 15, November 1, December 2, December 16, 1940, January 15, February 1, February 15, and March 1, 1941 issues.*

ceive reports each year of 30 to 50 light cases in different localities. Outbreaks today occur only as the result of using raw milk or improperly pasteurized milk.

State, county, and city laws and ordinances which provide for the protection of consumers against unhealthful milk, not only describe conditions under which milk must be produced and processed, but also provide for inspection to insure these conditions are observed. A study made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, on "Barriers to Internal Trade in Farm Products," shows how these laws and ordinances, conceived as sanitary measures, can be used to make the sale of milk difficult and expensive.

Says this publication: "Some areas have constantly raised their standards for the production of fluid milk. In any given case it would be impossible to tell in what degree this resulted from attempts to exclude outside milk or from a sincere desire to improve the quality of the product. . . . It is at least arguable that health protection beyond a certain degree may cost more than it is worth. Sanitary experts are loath to concede that there can be too much regulation in the interest of protecting health. Yet a common sense view may hold otherwise on occasion. When it is found, for example, that refinements of regulatory procedure cause milk to sell regularly at one and 2 cents a quart more than in nearby well-regulated cities . . . the ordinary consumer may wonder if this additional item of protection is fully justified in terms of public health."

A press release of the United States Department of Justice (July 7, 1938) says this: ". . . A frequent method of erecting such a (trade) barrier was by limiting the number of farms which could be inspected and certified by the health authorities in a given milk shed. In some cases, municipal ordinances prevented farmers located beyond an arbitrarily selected area from obtaining licenses to ship milk to the city in question. More often, however, . . . the area in which farms could be inspected was left to the sole and uncontrolled discretion of the

health authorities. This resulted in a condition under which farmers able to supply milk of the required grade were denied a market under ordinances ostensibly directed at sanitation.

"This development gave local boards of health not only sanitary control over the quality of milk, but economic control over the price of milk, because they regulated the supply. . . ."

Economic critics of sanitary regulations of milk say that there are now 2 cows in each stall: The cow that gives the milk, and a sacred cow which represents health regulations that one dare not criticize.

The time has come, they say, to stop looking at sanitary regulations as if they were something unapproachable, and to find out how much of them provide desirable protection of public health and how much hamper the protection of public health.

SHED. The vicinity around a city from which its milk supplies are drawn. As distances from a city increase, the cost of hauling increases. This cost sometimes determines the extent of a milk shed. In most cities, however, the boundaries of milk sheds are artificially drawn by city or State laws or regulations governing the inspection of farms. These laws or regulations may provide that no milk may be sold in a city which comes from a farm which has not been inspected by the city's health department. City health departments are sometimes jealous of their jurisdictional authority. Farms which a city refuses to inspect, for any number of reasons, fall outside its milk shed.

While the primary purpose of such laws and regulations is to protect the health of consumers of milk, they may also have the effect of discriminating between producers, favoring some over others, and may work hardships on consumers. By excluding some farmers who have milk which is as pure as the milk received from approved farms, the supply which a city might use may be kept down and the price to consumers may be kept unnecessarily high.

A remedy for this situation that has been advanced is to encourage all cities to adopt the Standard Milk Ordinance and then to provide Federal-State inspection of farms. This Federal-State inspection would take the place of the inspection by local health departments. Standards of Federal-State inspection would be uniform, and a city health department could then admit milk from any farm which obtained approval of the Federal-State inspector, wherever the farm was located. Obviously, milk from farms too far away to make the hauling of milk economically feasible would not be able to compete with milk from more advantageously located farms.

SKIM MILK (fluid). Fluid milk from which the fat has been separated. A by-product in the manufacture of cream, butter, and other dairy products, skim milk is a valuable food containing riboflavin (Vitamin G) and a large proportion of the other milk nutrients except fat, namely: the milk proteins, the milk minerals, and the milk sugar.

While it is used to some extent in the manufacture of chocolate flavored drinks and buttermilk, and in powdered form, little skim milk is consumed directly by human beings as food. Most of the skim milk that is used and not wasted is fed to animals.

Skim milk may sometimes be purchased directly from dairies at considerably less

WE CAN AFFORD MILK & AND ALL THE SERVICE FRILLS
WE CAN AFFORD MILK BUT NONE OF THE SERVICE FRILLS
WE CANT AFFORD EITHER MILK OR SERVICE FRILLS

WE ACCEPT ALL MILK THAT MEETS THE STANDARD ORDINANCE
SEE! I'M IN LUCK— I CAN SELL TO EITHER CITY
WE ACCEPT ALL MILK THAT MEETS THE STANDARD ORDINANCE

than the cost of whole fluid milk. Milk consumers in the District of Columbia, bargaining collectively with one dairy, have been enabled to purchase skim milk, delivered to their homes, for 5 cents a quart. In other cities, skim milk is for sale at the pasteurization plant for as little as 10 cents a gallon. In one city at least, a dairy gives it away to customers and needy families if they will come and get it.

It is urgently recommended to families with low incomes. It is also recommended to adults on reducing diets, since it is a low calorie food which supplies calcium and phosphorus, needed in building and maintaining strong bones and teeth.

One quart of fluid skim milk plus an ounce and a half of butter gives approximately the same nutrients obtained from a quart of whole milk.

SPREAD. (See also Distributor.) The difference between the price the distributor pays the farmer for milk and the price he charges the consumer for it.

In considering the milk spread, consumers should remember that it is not synonymous with profit. Included in the spread are costs of processing, pasteurizing, bottling, delivering, and collection. It must also pay the overhead costs of a dairy, the wages and salaries of its employees, the cost of advertising.

To determine whether or not a particular spread is justified, many questions have to be answered, and none of them can be answered accurately without access to books and records. Even then it takes an expert accountant to find out whether conditions such as these exist:

(1) expenses for uneconomic activities;

(2) costs inflated by inefficient operations;

(3) excessive charges for particular activities—salaries, real estate operations, interest;

(4) a high rate of profit after all charges have been deducted.

There is one other important fact consumers should remember about spreads. Even where a particular dairy, or all the dairies in a particular city, can prove that every expense item in the spread is an actual cost, this in itself proves nothing one way or the other about the efficiency of milk distribution.

A milk distributor may lose money delivering milk to consumers and still not be giving consumers any bargain. That is to say, it isn't the consumer's responsibility particularly to be the public auditor of milk company profits; it is the consumer's responsibility to examine the milk distribution system with an eye to discovering the most efficient possible method of getting milk to the people who need milk.

STANDARD MILK ORDINANCE. A model milk ordinance which is recommended for adoption in States, counties, and cities by the United States Public Health Service. Drafted by experts in consultation with the Public Health Service and the United States Department of Agriculture, the law is designed to give communities pure, safe milk at reasonable cost.

It is also intended to introduce uniformity in sanitary regulations affecting milk.

The ordinance has now been adopted in more than 2,300 cities and towns in 34 States. When inspection under the ordinance is uniformly satisfactory and uniformly accepted, the advantages of a standard ordinance are:

(1) It insures a pasteurized milk supply that is safe and a raw milk supply that is as safe as raw milk can practicably be made, short of pasteurization or boiling.

(2) In case of emergency, a city operating under the Standard Milk Ordinance may get milk from a nearby city operating under the same law just as safe as its regular supply.

(3) It permits farmers producing milk which conforms to the Standard Milk Ordinance requirements to sell it without hindrance, in more than one milk shed.

(4) It tends to reduce the barriers impeding free commerce in dairy products and to improve competition.

In general, the Standard Milk Ordinance defines the conditions under which milk is produced on the farm and the conditions for handling and processing it.

It establishes safe standards of sanitation and penalizes milk that fails to measure up to those standards. Finally, it lays down standards for regular inspection of dairies and farms, and laboratory examination of milk to insure that it meets the sanitary standards.

STORE PRICE. When consumers have their milk delivered to their door, a pint, a quart, or 2 quarts at a time, and pay for it at the end of the month by courtesy of a charge account, they are buying more than milk; they are also purchasing special retail delivery services, credit, and they are maintaining an expensive collection apparatus.

Recognizing this fact, dairies in some cities charge different prices for their milk; the home delivery price, a store price, and a cash-and-carry price.

The store price should be lower than the home delivery price because milk may be delivered in wholesale quantities to stores, cutting out the cost of having a milkman run up and down each milk consumer's doorstep with a bottle of milk. Credit and collection costs in the case of wholesale deliveries are cheaper, too, than in home delivery.

The difference in price between the home delivered price and the store price is called the store differential. A store differential doesn't exist in all cities, but it should because store delivered milk is cheaper for the dairies to handle.

Of course, some consumers have charge accounts at their grocery stores, and some of them have their grocers deliver their milk along with their other purchases. Not all store prices are cash-and-carry prices.

Presumably, if consumers went to stores selling milk and cash-and-carried it home, they could get it even cheaper. In fact, in some cities there are milk distributors who sell milk at prices below the store price because when consumers pay cash and carry milk home further substantial economies are possible.

SURPLUS. Dictionaries say a surplus is "that which remains when use or need is satisfied."

"Satisfying a use or need," however, may mean anything, and the result is that "surplus" can mean, and very often does mean, very different things.

When people talk about milk, surplus usually has one of 5 meanings.

The first meaning is one most consumers have in mind, unless they have dug into the problems of milk production and sale. Here surplus describes a condition where more milk is produced than is needed or than can be used. That might mean more milk is produced in a milk shed than can be consumed by the people in a milk market (or city); or it might mean more milk is produced in the whole country than can be consumed by all of us. Actually, this country has never produced that kind of milk surplus and probably no milk shed has either. In this sense, the belief in a surplus might be called a popular superstition.

Expert nutritionists who have studied the diets of American families (see "Are We Well Fed?" Miscellaneous Publication No. 430, for sale from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., for 15 cents) tell us this: If everyone, not now getting a diet on the safe side, were to get that kind of diet, we'd need at least 10 to 20 percent more milk, 10 to 25 percent more butter. In fact, "we in this country would do well to use twice the quantity of dairy products now consumed, according to recognized experts in the field of nutrition."

Of course, in our country our system of producing and selling is not geared to what people can or should use, but to what people can and will buy. So, forgetting the first definition of surplus, the question is: Do we have more milk than can be sold? If we do, then there's another kind of surplus.

Not all the milk nutrients that are produced are actually offered for sale. Much of the skim milk, which is a by-product of cream- and butter-making, and of whey, which is a by-product of cheese-making, is wasted or fed to animals. Humans could make good use of these highly nutritive by-products, but very little is offered to them at any price.

Barring these, however, all the milk that comes to market is sold in one form or another. While we do not have the kind of surplus that refers to unsaleable total supplies, there may be a surplus of fluid milk within an area from time to time which makes it necessary to manufacture part of the fluid milk into other dairy products. The second meaning of surplus, then, refers to various uses for milk. Commonly the price paid for milk depends, in part, on what use is to be made for the milk. The highest price goes for milk to be used in fluid form. Lower prices are usually paid for milk used in making cream, ice cream, butter, cheese, evaporated and condensed milk, powdered milk. Frequently, people lump together all this latter milk and call it surplus.

When used in this special sense, however, surplus milk may still have different meanings.

For example, surplus milk sometimes refers to a portion of the milk that is paid for under the base-surplus plan (see Base-Surplus Plan). Here any milk a farmer delivers in excess of his base (the amount of milk he may sell at fluid milk prices), and is paid for at the lower (surplus) price, is called surplus milk.

Another meaning arises out of the fact that there is a seasonal fluctuation in the production of milk while the consumption of fluid whole milk remains fairly steady throughout the year. The production of milk is an incident to the birthing of calves, and thus milk production rises and falls in a biological cycle. Seasons, too, which make pastures green in the summer and bare in the winter, affect the production of milk.

To keep a city dairy supplied with the fluid milk it wants to sell to its customers, it is necessary to arrange for a steady minimum supply. To be sure of this minimum supply in months when production is low, dairies agree to accept more than the minimum when production is high. This seasonal excess of fluid milk over fluid-milk requirements is known as surplus, too. Sometimes it is also called the market reserve. No milk is wasted for, if it is not sold as fluid milk, it is made into butter, cheese, ice cream, or some other dairy product.

Even if ways were found to increase the availability of fluid milk to families that cannot now afford sufficient fluid milk, there would still be surplus milk problems arising out of seasonal variations in production and from the day-to-day variations in consumption.

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"Out in Ohio, a survey was made last year among rural families in one community to see how many of them produced enough of their own food to supply their needs. Only half of them produced enough milk for themselves; only one out of 10 put up enough vegetables to meet their winter needs. In fine dairy sections like New York, you find many farm families who don't keep enough milk for their own use. Why farm people should go without adequate diets when they can raise food just a few steps from their own back door is more than I can see."

CLAUDE R. WICHARD,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONSUMERS' BOOKSHELF

ADEQUACY OF LABELING CERTAIN TEXTILE FABRICS WITH REGARD TO FIBER CONTENT, by Hazel Fletcher and Lois Dennhardt. Reprint from the Journal of Agricultural Research, Vol. 58, No. 12, June 15, 1939, pp. 895–903. Address: Department of Home Economics, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kans. Free. Of the 133 fabrics of one kind of fiber analyzed in this study 57 were labeled, and of these 40.4 percent were accurately labeled. Of the 79 fabrics of which store clerks gave information, the facts given were accurate in 31.6 percent cases. Of the 135 mixed fabrics examined, only 34 were labeled as to fiber content and none of those labels were completely accurate. Of the answers to questions given by clerks on 110 mixed fabrics, 8.2 percent were accurate, 85.4 percent partially accurate, and 6.4 percent wrong.

RUBBER: HISTORY, PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE, by P. W. Barker. U. S. Department of Commerce, Trade Promotion Series No. 209. 1940, pp. 47, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Considers the chemical and physical properties of rubber. Describes the history, production, manufacturing processes, position of the industry in the United States and abroad, and experiments with governmental price controls. Discusses reclaimed and synthetic rubber, and rubber derivatives. Bibliography.

PLUMBING AND PUBLIC HEALTH, by Arthur B. Conkright and Arthur P. Miller. Public Health Bulletin No. 256. 1940, pp. 118, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 30 cents. A study of water-borne diseases, especially those which are sometimes traced to faulty plumbing. Presents a digest of the other organizations conducting research on corrective and preventative measures. Contains a report of a survey of plumbing in Federal buildings in New York and Detroit. Bibliography.

FARM FENCES, by M. A. R. Kelley, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Chemistry and Engineering. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1832. 1940, pp. 58, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Discusses types of fences, fence posts, gates and entrances; their cost, construction and maintenance.

ROOFING IN THE UNITED STATES—RESULTS OF A QUESTIONNAIRE, by Leo J. Waldron and Hubert R. Snoke. National Bureau of Standards, Building Materials and Structures Report BMS 57. 1940, pp. 7. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Summarizes the results of a questionnaire covering the types and durability of roofing materials used, and those unsuited for use or restricted by local regulation from use in different geographical areas of the United States. Also considers customary construction practices, causes for roofing failures and the extent to which new types of roofing materials are being used.

THE PROBLEM OF COOPERATIVE MEDICINE, by V. J. Tereshtenko. Part I of Studies in the Field of Cooperative Medicine. 1940, pp. 78. Address: Cooperative Project, Work Projects Administration, 625 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Free. Explains the concepts, gives basic data on cooperative health associations in the United States and abroad, and analyzes views for and against cooperative medicine.

A PROGRAM FOR THE PRESENTATION OF CONSUMPTION MATERIAL IN GRADES EIGHT TO TWELVE. 1940, pp. 16, mimeo. Address: Proctor W. Maynard, Ishpeming High School, Ishpeming, Mich. 15 cents. Suggests on the basis of fifty-eight major consumer education topics, certain aspects of consumption which might be taught in existing courses of the high school curriculum. This plan was prepared with a view for its use in the Ishpeming Public Schools. The underlying philosophy, objectives and approaches to the areas of consumption are briefly discussed.

CONSUMER ECONOMICS; AN ACTIVITY GUIDEBOOK FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, by Herman Gall. 1940, pp. 221, mimeo. Address: Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo. 75 cents. Outlines activities and projects for individual students and for group participation. Subjects included are advertising, insurance, prices, money management, consumer credit, general buying problems, buying guides, agencies that help the consumer, housing, health, and consumers' cooperation. Suggestions for teaching the course, pre-tests for the students, and references, are given.

TEACHING CONSERVATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, by Effie G. Bathurst, Senior Specialist in Curricular Problems, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 14. 1938, pp. 125. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 20 cents. An analysis of methods used by teachers of conservation. Includes illustrative examples of procedures at various educational levels.

TOMORROW'S CITIZEN. 1940, pp. 31, mimeo. Address: American Association of University Women, 1634 Eye Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 25 cents. This bulletin gives a description of an exhibit on the social and civic problems of Washington, D. C., sponsored by the local branch of the American Association of University Women. Gives general suggestions for the planning, design and building of exhibits. Also gives suggestions on committees needed to handle an exhibit, and on publicity. On page 13 there is a brief description of the consumers' section of the exhibit which was prepared by the Consumers' Counsel Division.

ARE WE WELL FED? by Hazel K. Stiebeling, U. S. Bureau of Home Economics. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 430. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 15 cents. A report on the diets of families in the United States based on an analysis of food consumption data collected in connection with the Consumer Purchases Study. Outlines the essentials of a good diet and compares the findings of the Consumer Purchases Study with such standards. Suggests procedures for insuring adequate diets.

CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE BUILDS DEFENSE. Consumer Division Bulletin No. 11. 1941, pp. 62. Address: Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration and Civilian Supply, Washington, D. C. Free. An annotated bibliography of free or inexpensive, nontechnical pamphlet materials of particular value to individual and consumer groups interested in relating their activities to National Defense. Lists many publications giving information on consumer goods and services and on the programs of governmental and other agencies rendering aids to the consumer.

THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND ECONOMIC IMPROVEMENT. A Progress Report of the First Year of an Experiment in Applied Economics, by Maurice F. Seay and Harold F. Clark. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XIII, No. 1. 1940, pp. 121. Address: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky. 50 cents. Describes the objectives, methods, and procedures of an experiment in a group of one-teacher schools in selected communities of Kentucky to determine to what extent the diet practices of a community may be improved through the introduction of instructional materials concerning food and related topics into the elementary school program. Includes examples of the new instructional materials used. Bibliography.

THE FARMER'S SHARE OF THE CONSUMER'S FOOD DOLLAR, prepared by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Leaflet No. 123. Revised 1940, pp. 6. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 5 cents. Considers the amount farmers receive of the prices paid by consumers for 58 major food items. Includes tables showing the amount spent by consumers and the amount received by farmers for these foods from 1913 through 1939. Compares the retail price with the price paid to farmers for 22 selected food products in 1939.

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